DUKE UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN: ERB

MAY 11, 1938

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

Vol. XVII, No. 5

Cover not in.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN

(Entered in the United States Patent Office)

W. W. CHARTERS ..... *Editor*
J. MACLATCHY ..... *Assistant Editor*

PUBLISHED MONTHLY BY THE BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, FOR THE SCHOOLS OF OHIO. EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICES, ROOM 203, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, COLUMBUS, OHIO

Contents

Public-School Directors of Research Look at Their Positions 115
DOUGLAS E. SCATES, *Board of Education, Cincinnati, Ohio*

Investigations of Teacher Supply and Demand Reported in 1937 132
R. H. ELIASSEN, *Bethany College*
EARL W. ANDERSON, *Bureau of Educational Research*

Editorial Comment 137

Readings 139

BOOKS TO READ—*An Outline Survey of Journalism; School Learning with Various Methods of Practice and Rewards; Children's Books from Foreign Languages; English Translations from Published and Unpublished Sources; Democracy in Denmark.*

IN PAPER COVERS—*"La France"; Stone Setting; Variability in Results from New-Type Achievement Tests; Data on Manuscript Writing; Trends in Manuscript Writing; Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability; "Of the People": The Superintendent's Annual Report for the 93rd Year of the Detroit Public Schools, Part 1; Educational, Psychological and Personality Tests of 1936.*

THE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN is published monthly except during June, July, and August. Entered as Second-Class Matter, February 9, 1922, at the Post-Office at Columbus, Ohio, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Accepted for mailing at specified rates of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized February 21, 1922.

Educational Research Bulletin

MAY 11, 1938
Vol. XVII, No. 5

Public-School Directors of Research Look at Their Positions

By DOUGLAS E. SCATES

BUREAUS of research in public-school systems are a comparatively recent development, and information concerning their status and potentialities is of value as a basis for guiding their further growth and improving their usefulness. Several aspects of research bureaus have been previously studied,[1] but it seemed fitting at this time to inquire into certain of the career aspects of this work, as judged by those who are now engaged in it. That is, what are the typical working conditions? What are the training and experience of research directors? How satisfied are they with their positions? To what do they look forward?

To secure the evaluations and attitudes of research workers, a questionnaire consisting of 76 items was sent to all of those listed by the United States Office of Education[2] as research directors in cities having populations of thirty thousand and over. There were 122 such directors. How many of these cities maintain what may be regarded as a research bureau is conjectural. Letters were received from a number of the individuals addressed saying that they did nothing that could be construed as research, and did not feel that they should answer the questionnaire. Apparently the title "research director" is sometimes bestowed on persons who have full-time duties of another nature, so that the superintendent will have some justification for giving them certain routine figure work which must be done.

[1] These studies are in the main cited on page 5 of: William H. Zeigel, Jr. *Research in Secondary Schools.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. vi+72 pp. (Bulletin, 1932, No. 17)

Because of its importance, an early survey is specifically listed here: Chapman, Harold B. *Organized Research in Education.* Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1927. 221 pp. (Bureau of Educational Research Monographs No. 7)

[2] *Educational Directory, 1938,* Part II, "City School Officers." Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. 28 pp. (Bulletin, 1938, No. 1).

Sixty questionnaires were returned, and these form the basis for the analyses which follow.[3] While this number is only 50 per cent of the total number sent out (*see* Column 3, Table I), it probably represents a substantial majority of those who may properly be regarded as research directors. The mailing list was too inclusive, as explained, and this was undoubtedly true to a larger extent among the smaller cities. The questionnaire frankly discouraged any from replying who did not have a legitimate claim to be included. Possibly replies were received from three-fourths of those who should have returned them.[4]

A VARIETY of types of positions are represented by the 60 replies. One-fourth of them are in cities with populations below one hundred thousand; another fourth are from cities with populations between one hundred thousand and two hundred thousand; and half are from cities over two hundred thousand. The replies are divided equally between those who give full time to research and those who give only part time—two-thirds of those in the cities with populations below two hundred thousand being part-time workers, and about one-third in the larger cities. Nearly three-fourths of those reporting have the assistance of one or more full-time workers; of the seventeen who do not, fifteen are themselves part-time directors. One-fifth of all the replies are from women; the proportion is somewhat higher for the cities below two hundred thousand.[5]

Two-thirds of those replying hold the rank of director, or of assistant superintendent—in the ratio of three to one; the remaining third have ranks which appear to be somewhat lower, or less stable. It may be assumed that this latter group represents cities in which the research function has not yet attained complete recognition.

The research in these 60 centers appears to be about equally

[3] Two others were received but were not included in the analysis because too many of the fundamental questions were not answered.

[4] Zeigel, in connection with the National Survey of Secondary Education, obtained replies from 57 directors in cities of thirty thousand and over. He reports (page 3) a similar experience: "The returns indicated that a number of bureaus, the names of which were listed in earlier publications, were not really bureaus of research."

[5] Tendencies for cities between one hundred thousand and two hundred thousand population in this study are much the same as for cities from thirty thousand to one hundred thousand. The dividing line in comparisons will therefore frequently be set at two hundred thousand rather than at one hundred thousand, which is more common. The data were all tabulated according to the three groups of city size mentioned in the context; when only a single comparison is given, it may be assumed that the data for the remaining category did not show any distinctive tendency.

divided between administrative and instructional fields. The directors were asked to check a list of twelve areas, as shown in Table II, each check to represent approximately one-fourth of

TABLE I

QUESTIONNAIRE RETURNS, BY SIZE OF CITY, SHOWING TIME, SEX, AND RANK OF RESEARCH DIRECTOR

POPULATION 1930	NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES SENT OUT	PERCENTAGE RETURNED	FULL TIME TO RESEARCH	NUMBER OF WOMEN	RANK		
					Asst. Supt.	Director	Other*
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Above 200,000	38	89	22	6	6	20	8
100,000 to 200,000	21	67	5	4	4	5	5
30,000 to 100,000	63	19	3	3	2	8	2
Total	122	49	30	13	12	33	15

* "Other" includes eight supervisors, and various special ranks, including two "director-principals" and one "teacher on special assignment."

TABLE II

AREAS RECEIVING THE MAJOR ATTENTION—ONE-FOURTH TO ONE-FIFTH OF THE TOTAL RESEARCH TIME—OF RESEARCH WORKERS

Administrative Areas	No.	Instructional Areas	No.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Financial studies and analyses, including teachers salaries; making required reports	32	1. Achievement testing, test construction, and studies	45
2. Child-accounting, census, population studies, class-size, promotion rates; making required reports	24	2. Psychological testing, and studies	35
3. Studies of the teaching staff, including time distribution, etc.	20	3. Curriculum construction, and supporting studies	24
4. Preparing and giving out information; answering questionnaires	40	4. Exploratory studies in teaching methods	18
5. Miscellaneous, including general direction of bureau	27	5. Miscellaneous, including general direction of bureau	24
6. Other (building programs, editorial work, organization studies, etc.)	12	6. Other	1
Total	155	Total	147

their research time. A good many of the respondents checked more than four; nevertheless, the returns may indicate approximately the relative emphasis being given to the various areas.

Table III shows the year in which the research service was established in various cities, according to responses to the ques-

tion, "When was the research function in your school system first provided for in terms of a definite assignment of time?" In some cases this is a difficult question to answer, for a service may not have been given the designation of research until some years after it was established in the school system. Or a service, which in other school systems would have been denoted research, may have been established at an early date and may never have carried the title of research—perhaps another bureau being established later and being called the research bureau. According to the dates reported, however, the median year of establishment in the largest cities was about 1923, and in the other two groups of cities, about 1928. The mean age of the service for all cities is between thirteen and fourteen years.

We may next look to the directors themselves, and examine certain aspects of their professional qualifications. Doctors' degrees are held by 27 of the 60 who reported; Masters' degrees, by 28; and Bachelors' degrees, by 5—the latter two groups having varying amounts of additional graduate work. Table III indicates that the appointments from the two groups with higher training are distributed well over the entire range of years; nobody with a Bachelor's degree has appeared among the last ten appointments in the list.

That the directors of research are among the best-trained workers in the school systems is perhaps to be expected. Asked, "Do the assistant superintendents on the average have as much formal training as you?" twice as many replied, "No" as "Yes." Of the 27 holding Doctors' degrees, only two answered, "Yes." Of those holding Masters' degrees, twice as many said "Yes" as said "No." Oddly enough, of the five who hold only Bachelors' degrees, only one said that the assistant superintendents had as much schooling. When asked the same question with reference to other directors and supervisors, the replies were much the same. Sixteen out of the 60 answered that other directors were, on the average, as well trained.

The modal age of the research directors is above forty years. One reported an age between twenty and twenty-nine, 17 between thirty and thirty-nine, 21 between forty and forty-nine, and 21 of fifty or over. Two-thirds of the directors are younger than the "typical assistant superintendent" in their system, and half are younger than the median director or supervisor.

The next question concerned salary. The directors were not asked to report figures,[6] but were asked whether they were receiving "as much salary as the typical, or average, assistant superintendent" in their system, as much as "the lowest paid assistant superintendent," or "as much as the median director

TABLE III*

DATE OF ESTABLISHING RESEARCH SERVICE

Year Established	Number	Size of City			Training of Present Director			First Director There Now	Full Time to Research
		30,000–100,000	100,000–200,000	Above 200,000	Bachelor	Master	Doctor		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1911†	1	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	1	.....	1
1912	2	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	2	1	2
1914	3	.....	.....	3	.....	1	2	.....	3
1916	3	.....	.....	3	1	1	1	.....	2
1917	3	.....	1	2	.....	1	2	1	3
1918	2	.....	1	1	1	.....	1	1	.....
1921	1	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.....	.....	1
1922	5	1	2	2	.....	3	2	2	1
1923	2	.....	.....	2	1	1	.....	1	1
1924	4	.....	.....	4	.....	2	2	1	3
1925	4	.....	.....	4	.....	1	3	.....	2
1926	1	1	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....
1927	3	3	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	2	1
1928	8	1	5	2	1	5	2	7	3
1929	4	.....	2	3	.....	.....	5	3	3
1930	2	.....	1	1	.....	2	.....	1	.....
1931	1	1	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....
1932	1	1	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....
1933	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....
1934	2	.....	1	1	.....	1	1	2	2
1935	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.....
1937	1	1	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....
Unanswered	4	1	1	2	.....	3	1	.....	2
Total	60	12	14	34	5	28	27	23	30

* This table may be compared with Table 2, page 9, of Zeigel's report, *cit. sup.*

† Provided for with private funds at first; in later years financed by the school system.

or supervisor." Only one-sixth were receiving as much as the average assistant superintendent; one-fourth were receiving as much as the lowest assistant superintendent's salary; three-fourths were receiving as much as the median director. If we divide the research directors into those who have the rank of

[6] Actual figures for 1935 and earlier years are given in the following reference: Carr, William G. "Staffs and Salaries in City School Research Divisions," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX (January, 1936), pp. 369–71.

assistant superintendent and director, respectively, we find that about half of each group are receiving a salary equal to or above the median of their group. The research directors appear, on the whole, to be paid according to the rank which they hold.

The schedule on which research directors are paid varies widely. Sixteen, or one-fourth of the group, replied that they were not on any schedule; 12, or one-fifth, are on a schedule for administrators; an equal number are on the directors' salary schedule. Half as many are paid as supervisors, and the rest on various schedules—"teachers," "high school," and the like.

WHERE do directors of research come from? And what is their previous experience? The answer in brief is that half of them, 29, come up through the ranks, as teacher and then as principal. A few more come directly from teaching, without having been an administrator. Eight are from special work—meaning that their main experience has been other than teaching or administration, in addition to 12 who have previously had research experience. Six have had experience predominantly in college teaching. There is no marked difference in these tendencies for cities of different sizes, nor for full- and part-time research directors, nor for sex, except that there is a slightly greater tendency in the cities with populations of less than two hundred thousand, and among the men, to come up through the ranks; also, the cities with populations of more than two hundred thousand took 9 of the 12 who had had previous experience in research. While these statements are based on the emphasis in the entire pattern of experience, they correspond closely to the distribution of the last positions held before becoming research directors, as given in Table IV. This table indicates where the research workers are found for appointment. The two who came direct from university study had both had public-school experience previously.

We conclude that the avenue to the research directorship is about equally common through teaching and administration in public schools, and through special positions, perhaps not in public schools. Whether it will be so in the future is another question. We do not have satisfactory information as to the relative length of time required by the two routes, nor as to the likelihood (probability) of appointment, considering the total number of people in each of the two general fields of work.

The data do show, however, that, of the 27 directors who hold the Doctors' degrees, 11 had both teaching and administrative experience in a public-school system before becoming directors.

HAVING obtained a picture of certain objective characteristics of the research positions, and of the research directors themselves, we may now turn to a consideration of some of the more subjective phases of the work. We are interested here in knowing how well adjusted the research workers are to their working conditions, or vice versa. Do they enjoy their work? Do they desire to stay in their positions? What changes do they think would make their work more effective?

To secure a more or less indicative cross section of the attitude of research directors, they were asked to check a list of 8 statements, in positive and negative form, covering certain general phases of their work. These statements, and the responses, are summarized here:

I like the work I am doing	50	I don't like the kind of work I am doing	0
The working conditions and relationships are as satisfactory as I can expect to find	44	The working conditions and relationships are not agreeable	5
I have a combination of research and other duties which I like	30	I want more time for real research, less service work	14
There is enough opportunity here for me, unless something better should happen my way	36	There is not enough opportunity here for me in research work	10
My research bureau is large enough so that I have all the administrative responsibility I wish within the Bureau	28	I would like to become an administrator	10
It is paying, or probably will pay, as much as I can expect to make	23	My position does not and will not pay as much as I hope to make	27
I like the city I am in	48	I want to move to a larger (or smaller) city	3
My position is as secure as I could desire	34	I do not feel secure in my present position—it might be abolished, or I might be dismissed, or demoted	12

It is worthy of note that no one checked the bare statement, "I do not like the kind of work I am doing"—though some did qualify it and then check.

Relatively few find working conditions and relationships categorically disagreeable. A fourth of them express a desire for more time for research. On the matter of salary, there is a pronounced expression: almost half of the group believe that their position does not pay what it should, and will not in the

future. Noteworthy also is the fact that 12 out of 60 have a feeling of insecurity.

As a more crucial test of the satisfactions which the research directors find in their present work they were asked, "Do you think you would be reasonably contented to be in your present position five years from now?" and "Do you feel that your present position is reasonably satisfactory for the rest of your life? In making your answer, consider any developments in your work that are likely to take place." To these questions 12 directors answered "No" in the first case, and 29 answered "No" in the second, with 6 more being doubtful. Looking at it on the positive side, three-fourths of the directors believe they would be satisfied for another five years, and two-fifths of them are reasonably satisfied with their positions as a permanent connection.

TABLE IV

THE LAST POSITION HELD BEFORE ASSUMING PRESENT RESEARCH DUTIES

Position	Total Number	In Present School System	Outside of Present School System
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Public-school teacher	4	2	2
Public-school teacher, special class	1	1	0
Elementary-school principal	10	9	1
High-school vice-principal	8	6	2
High-school principal	5	4	1
Department head	2	1	1
Director of visual education	1	1	0
Director of instruction	1	1	0
Assistant superintendent	2	2	0
Superintendent (smaller city)	1	0	1
Psychologist	2	0	2
Vocational assistant	1	1	0
Business—cost accountant	1	0	1
Graduate student	2	0	2
Research assistant	4	3	1
Assistant director of research (larger city)	3	0	3
Research, state department of education	2	0	2
Research director, university	1	0	1
University teaching	8	1	7
Not answered	1	.....	.....
Total	60	32	27

Because of the importance of these questions, further analy-

ses were made. The same proportions hold for both men and women, and closely for those in cities of more than two hundred thousand. In cities of from thirty thousand to one hundred thousand, 8 out of 12 workers do not regard their positions as permanently satisfactory. Grouped on the basis of degrees, half of those who have Doctors' degrees and half of those who have Masters' degrees do not find in their present positions what they wish to look forward to. Analyzed in terms of relative salaries, all of those who are receiving as much salary as the average or typical assistant superintendent in their system report that they are reasonably satisfied with their positions for the future; of those who are not receiving this much, half are not satisfied. In terms of age, the largest proportion of those who are not permanently satisfied (14 out of 17) occurs between thirty and thirty-nine years; in the age-group forty to forty-nine, the proportion is 9 out of 21; and for those fifty and over, it is only 5 out of 21. From this rather marked difference one may infer either that the younger men are of a somewhat different sort, or that the older men have attained the recognition they desire, or perhaps that the younger men expect too much and the older ones have given up expecting.

What do research directors look forward to? If half of them think that something else would be better than their present positions, what do they have in mind? They were asked to respond to the question: "If your answer to the previous question was No, what do you look forward to as a reasonably satisfactory level and type of work, say from age fifty on?" The responses are summarized as follows:

Administration	11
College teaching (and research)	9
Higher rank, present work	5
Time for more research	3
Pupil personnel, guidance work	1
	29

If one analyzes this list of categories, he may sense two basic desires—the desire for more recognition, with perhaps more money, either as an administrator or with a higher rank in the research field, and the desire for a better opportunity to do research. If either or both of these desires could be satisfied by changing certain conditions of their present work, possibly none of the research directors would look toward other positions.

FURTHER data obtained on the questionnaire permit a fairly detailed analysis of existing working conditions and throw some light on factors which contribute to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Some of these factors have already been mentioned;[7] we may now explore certain factors which are more intimately connected with the working operations and which largely determine the kind of work that is done. These factors contribute to working morale, or "job hygiene"; they are therefore deserving of some attention.

First is definiteness of the field of work. In reply to the question, "Do the superintendent and assistant superintendent recognize clearly the limits of your research work, and the functions you are expected to discharge in connection with it?" 43 said, "Yes"; 15, "No." To the question, "Do the principal and teachers with whom you may have working contacts have a clear recognition of your field of work, its limits, and its prerogatives?" 39 replied, "Yes"; 3 were doubtful; 17 said, "No." When asked, "Are you bothered by uncertainty in your own mind as to the limits of your field of work, or the functions you are supposed to discharge?" 40 said, "No"; 19, "Yes." To the question, "Do other directors or supervisors exhibit any signs of jealousy or anxiety lest you infringe on what they consider their fields of work?" 44 replied, "No"; 15, "Yes." Taken altogether, 28 of the 60 directors indicate lack of definiteness of their field of work and the need for clarification, with respect to one or more of these points.

The research work appears to take its direction chiefly from the individual assignments that are given from time to time, without much planning, in 23 of the cases rather than from a periodically reconsidered plan of work. This condition is to be expected where the emphasis is upon service work; it is not necessarily connected with research, and is not likely to be conducive to research.

The matter of direction of the work was followed up with other questions. In reply to "Does the superintendent discuss with you the large problems and outlines of your work, reviewing its relations to other work, considering new plans and possibilities, and crystallizing the direction it should take?" slightly more than half responded that they did; but 40 said they felt the need of more such conferences—a number were emphatic.

[7] *See* open table, page 122.

Lack of effective contact with vital problems is a theme that runs through certain responses to a number of questions such as, "Are you often called into administrative councils, where administrative or instructional problems are being discussed, and perhaps policies being formed?" A number of directors have an excellent working relationship on this point; 41 answered that it was satisfactory; 15 reported that it occurred only infrequently, or not at all. To the question, "Do you feel that decisions are too frequently made without proper consideration (and perhaps knowledge) of important technical facts?" 13 responded, "Yes." In answer to "Would your perspective and insights for your own work be improved by more intimate contact with administrative or instructional problems and discussions?" 20 replied, "Yes."

An element of futility appears in some replies because of congestion and inability to get to the more important problems. Only 6 directors report that they "are doing all that is reasonably necessary in the school system along the lines of research"; 37 report that they are assigned, or expected to do, more than they can do; only 15 report that their staffs are adequate for the work given them. To the questions, "Do you still have to think as hard as you can on your job?" or, "Has it become largely a matter of just keeping things moving?" 12 replied the latter, and 7 were uncertain. Of three statements representing different degrees of importance attached to their work, 50 checked the first statement, "I consider that the type of work I am doing constitutes a vital service in the successful operation of a school system," but a number of them qualified the statement to read "the type of work that I ought to be doing," before they checked it. Marginal notes spread over many of the questionnaires indicated congested programs, many parts of which the directors feel are trivial—although they would probably agree that they must be done by somebody. The question they would probably like to voice is, "But why employ someone with a Doctor's degree to do [such work]?"

The directors were asked to indicate approximately the proportion of their time that went to routine, or service work, and to research. The bulk of the estimates were for one-fourth research time; only 12 estimated that more than one-fourth of their time went for research, and 7 reported none at all. The

tendency was practically the same for cities of all sizes. In some cases, notes pointed out that even the estimate of one-fourth of one's time for research was limited to the director or his assistant; that, if the entire staff were included, the proportion would be much lower. This is likely to be especially true of testing bureaus. Research, for purposes of this question, was defined as "studies of special problems that are relatively novel." The balance of the time was reported for routine work —"regular jobs, being about the same from time to time"—or for service work, on the level of informational service, the modal proportion of time for these being three-fourths, a figure that would be higher in most cases if reported for the staff.

The general worth-whileness of their present work is brought into question by a number of directors in other ways. Asked, "Do you feel that your work gives you the opportunity to contribute as much to your school system as you could if conditions were somewhat different?" 41 replied, "No"; 10 replied, "Yes"; and 9 replies were equivocal, or blank. They were also asked: "Do you believe that you could render a greater service to the school system if you were given a freer hand to shift the emphasis of your work?" Nearly one half thought they could. One stated: "I would formulate a long-range research program, co-ordinated with the current work."

There is some question about the extent to which the work of research directors has the opportunity to function. To the question, "Are your findings normally accepted as important, and used?" 40 replied, "Yes"; but 19 said, "No," or that it was a question. Twenty-three replied to the question, "Do you often have the feeling that your research work is not accomplishing much—that the superintendent and others do not pay much attention to your findings?" that they had such feelings; the proportion was practically the same in cities of all sizes.

We may turn from the troubles of the research directors to the brighter side. What do they like about their work? What are the satisfactions which they find in it? Human beings tend to be more conscious of their irritations than of their satisfactions; however, most research directors are aware of real satisfactions in their work. Some of these were mentioned in connection with replies to various questions; others were given in response to the specific questions, "What conditions of your

work are especially satisfactory, pleasant, or enjoyable? What elements in your work afford you the greatest satisfaction?" The sources of satisfaction in their work which research directors mentioned are summarized as follows:

Agreeable working conditions 25
Breadth of field and variety of problem, freedom of work and opportunity for initiative, opportunity to explore, freedom from political influence and pressures, good physical facilities for work, enjoyment in doing technical work, loyal and able clerical staff, an occasional opportunity to publish, being in a progressive school system.

Contacts with vital, challenging problems 21
Opportunity to do at least some real research, the challenge of real problems, the feeling that you are working on something that counts, opportunity to help children and teachers, participation in policy formation, close contact with the administration, getting results which prove the value of scientific work.

Personal contacts 20
Pleasant and stimulating relations with other staff members, including principals and teachers; democratic, professional spirit; mutual respect; splendid co-operation of superintendent.

Prestige of the work 7
Appreciation and respect shown by others for research findings, superintendent and board value the research work.

One notes a wide variety of sources of satisfaction. In reading the questionnaires, one is impressed with the high praise which many research directors give to their superintendents for providing them excellent working conditions, a generous audience, and professional support. Many of the sources of satisfaction mentioned by the research workers are the very things which, when not present in proper degree, are mentioned by other directors as the causes of dissatisfaction.

LEAVING the item-by-item summary which has been presented up to this point, we may attempt to look at the situation in the large. What are the underlying factors that contribute to the efficient and smooth functioning of research bureaus? From the analysis of satisfactions and dissatisfactions which has been made, can we sort out those factors that seem to be the chief conditioning elements in public-school research work?

In making such an analysis, it should be borne in mind that we are looking at the position—the conditions of work as they exist. The research director, his professional and personal qualifications, are obviously of fundamental importance to the success of research work, and must be considered in any complete picture. In fact, an analysis of the shortcomings of public-school research made by superintendents would probably be largely concerned with the characteristics of the research director and

his assistants. In the present analysis, however, we are looking in the opposite direction—viewing the position through the eyes of the research directors. The picture presented is admittedly one-sided; to present both sides is beyond the scope of a single study. Even the presentation of one side, however, may have its values.

THREE factors appear to underlie the many responses—categorical and otherwise—which were made by the research directors about their work. The first of these may be termed the worth-whileness of the work. Research people like to grapple with real problems; they like to experience the impact of their analytical skills upon complex situations; they like evidence that their work is accomplishing something in the school system. We find in one questionnaire after another evidence of a lack of vital connection between the research bureau and the stream of problems in the school system. We can find research bureaus—even in the larger cities—that have reached a condition of stalemate. The work may be well provided for, but it has received little administrative attention since it was started. The bureau may be rendering an important service, but of the treadmill type. There are no conferences between the superintendent and the research director; the latter is just keeping on in his groove. Important insights that may grow out of his working experiences have no opportunity for fruition. Everybody is too busy to see him.

This problem of proper contacts is mentioned first because it is probably the most vital element in the effective work of a research bureau. If channels have not been provided for keeping the research bureau regularly in touch with the pressing problems of the school system, and for giving proper administrative and instructional consideration to the findings and recommendations of the bureau, then that bureau cannot render the service it should. The reason for the difficulty may lie in the fact that the superintendent and the research director do not understand each other. They have a different ideology; the origins of their thinking and the criteria of their decisions are different. The superintendent may not have a full recognition of the way in which research—instructional or administrative—can function to serve the school system. He leaves the director alone, in his bureau. The research director, on the

other hand, cannot understand how the superintendent can repeatedly ignore the needed changes which his facts have brought to light, or how the superintendent can consistently ignore his ability and readiness to procure important information on pressing problems. Meeting only rarely, the two may never get on common ground; they may, in fact, grow farther apart. It is difficult for the director to take the initiative.

ANOTHER aspect of the worth of research is concerned with the level of detail that the director works on. This is probably the second most general source of vitiation of the effectiveness of research bureaus. Many directors are "snowed under" with a mass of detailed work. There is no use talking about the administrative precept that one should not get buried in paper work. Technical work is necessarily detailed; it has to be so if it is well done. It is likely to be work that the administration has delegated; but somebody has to do this work, and if the research director does not have a properly graded staff his time must go for it. Meanwhile, problems which are fundamental and pressing go without research attention. This situation is neither appropriate nor economical.

The second of the three major factors believed to be crucial for the effective functioning of research bureaus concerns the immediate working conditions. As distinguished from the first, which embraced the content or substance of the work, this second category pertains to the manner in which the work can be prosecuted. Are the immediate working conditions such that the work can be performed efficiently, and are they such that good morale is maintained? These factors are varied and numerous; they include such matters as freedom of work, opportunity for initiative, a proper amount of responsibility, variety of work, the ability to schedule work and follow the schedule, definiteness of field and functions, and the like. These things constitute the first group of conditions which appear as the basis of satisfactions; they are important in a positive way when present, and in a negative way when absent.

A number of directors mentioned working under great pressure and confusion. One remarked, "I never get to work two hours on anything." Admittedly, workers need a certain amount of pressure, but too much leads to disorganization, poor work, and delay. One director wrote, "I like my work because

of the variety and because of the stimulus that comes from the necessity of being prepared, upon a minute's notice, to work in a number of fields," but he would pause before saying that he wants to work in all fields in the same afternoon—or that he wants three major assignments given to him at the same time.

THE third factor which is believed to be of major importance in keeping directors satisfied relates to the returns which are made to the director. These are of several kinds. One may think at once of salary, which is of course one form of return. In as much as practically half of the directors of all ages feel they could do better on salary, and only 25 per cent of those who are below fifty years of age feel that their present positions offer satisfactory future opportunities, it may be that salary is a matter of consideration. When one mature director writes that the opportunities in his position "are not adequate for normal ambition," he may be expressing what other directors feel but have not so succinctly said.

Salary is one objective of the ambitious, rank is another; but in addition to these more or less external rewards, there are many possibilities of returns connected with the work itself. The replies indicate that a number of research directors would be more satisfied if they were given reasonable recognition for the work they do. All that is required is that the work be known as their work; that it be presented to the principals and teachers as the work of the research staff. Perhaps reports of certain studies prepared by the bureau could be given wider circulation —under the name of the bureau. Various minor forms of recognition need to be used, particularly where the value of research is under some question. Research is not showy; long hours of work are required to produce even a short report. Research workers, like professional people in other lines of work, are willing to stand by the drudgery connected with their work if only they can see at the end some form of approbation.

A final element which we may mention in connection with recognition is the matter of security. This is a point that was mentioned by far more of the directors than was expected. Working close to the superintendent has its advantages, but also its dangers. As one director noted, "All of the above answers depend on the superintendent who is in." Another wrote, "The research director should have as much tenure as the principals

and teachers." A director of some standing commented, "I could be dismissed tomorrow." With professionally minded superintendents such things are not likely to happen; but recent dangers are still fresh in the minds of many directors.

IN CONCLUDING this analysis a brief list of elements which contribute to an ideal situation for research work in city school systems will be offered.

The first is a school system in which research is a vital function. This requires contact with live problems, and the use of research findings when reported. It implies that the superintendent recognizes the service which research can afford, and that he utilizes it as an active aid. The research director should sit in a reasonable number of administrative councils, both for the technical advice he can offer on problems, and for his own orientation in his work.

Second is appropriate recognition of the research director and his work. This implies a satisfactory salary, rank, and reasonable security. It also implies that proper credit will be given for work done.

The third is an adequate staff for handling the mass of detailed work. The director should be a director—busily engaged, but not with clerical work.

Fourth, satisfactory immediate working conditions of various kinds: a definite field of work, functions, and prerogatives which are understood by all concerned; reasonable freedom; opportunity for initiative; proper recognition of the detailed nature of technical work; a working docket that is not too congested or uneven; and the like.

Fifth, a reasonable balance between repetitive work and novel work. A certain amount of routine is desirable for relief —and as recurrent evidence of continuing usefulness—especially when special studies do not work out.

Sixth, a research director who is properly trained, and interested in a more or less practical type of research. In as much as the research director is largely administrator, director, supervisor, technical expert, and clerical worker all in one, he needs varied abilities. He should have a broad philosophy of education as a background for his more technical training.

Investigations of Teacher Supply and Demand Reported in 1937

By R. H. ELIASSEN AND EARL W. ANDERSON

TWENTY-THREE investigations of teacher supply and demand reported in 1937 were located. The most extensive of these are state-wide studies of Bledsoe for West Virginia (3) and of Willey for Kentucky (24). Reports from 174 teacher-training institutions were analyzed by Umstattd in his *Third Annual Survey* (23). In *Education News* (21) are summarized the returns of a questionnaire survey of teacher supply and demand as reported by officials in state departments of education. Other reports included those of institutional placement officers, studies of specific phases, or more general consideration of the problem.

In general, the situation is pictured as progressively improving during the past several years. The demand for elementary-school teachers, especially for rural schools, was stronger than for those in high school. Undersupply was reported in many sections of the country in the elementary schools and in the special fields, such as home economics, music, industrial arts, vocational agriculture, commercial teaching, and art. In the states of the Great Plains definite shortages were reported in most fields. Thus Schmidt of the University of North Dakota, reporting in the spring of 1937, stated, "Our list of candidates has not been so thoroughly exhausted in many years as it was last fall" (19). Moritz from the University of Nebraska wrote similarly: "Before September 1, 1937, the supply of available teachers was practically exhausted and the record shows the per cent of placement is highest on record" (15). He reported a shortage of teachers in almost every field. In the 174 institutions reporting to Umstattd the percentage of placements increased from 65 per cent in 1934–35 to 76 per cent in 1935–36 (23). Increases in calls and placements were noted in reports from the University of Michigan (2), from Teachers College, Columbia University (14), from Ohio State University (1), from the Indiana State Teachers College (5), and from the Mankato, Minnesota, State Teachers College (20).

The various percentages of placement were: 76 per cent for the country at large (22), for the state normal schools of New

York (11), and for the Indiana State Teachers College (5); 74 per cent for Ohio State University (1); almost 100 per cent for the Universities of Nebraska (15) and North Dakota (19); and 88 per cent for the State Teachers College of Mankato, Minnesota (20). Other reports do not indicate the exact percentages of placement, although in every case improvement was evident.

Several writers indicated that improvement of general economic conditions had much to do with the increased opportunities for teachers. Malmberg found that the number of high-school teaching positions in Illinois increased from 14,044 in 1931–32 to 17,195 in 1934–35 (13). Schmidt saw the influence of the previous poor demand for teachers and the meager salaries paid them upon the number of applicants for teaching positions (19). In his institution the number of such applicants dropped from 180 in 1932 to 101 in 1936. Increased certification requirements in several states reduced the numbers of newly certified teachers over those of previous years.

ONE of the most recent pictures of teacher supply and demand is that presented by *Education News*, based upon data collected from twenty-nine states during the autumn of 1937 (21). Because of the recency and breadth of the study, a somewhat detailed summary is given here, with the addition of data taken from other sources regarding Ohio and Nebraska. The supply was reported as "ample" in New Hampshire, New York, and Washington; as "adequate" in Rhode Island; and as "ample," with certain exceptions noted, in Arizona and Louisiana. A shortage of "trained" or "well-qualified" teachers was noted in Alabama, Arkansas, and Kansas, whereas there was a shortage of "highly efficient" teachers in Virginia.

Undersupply of teachers in specific areas was reported in individual states as follows:

Arizona	primary, special-subject combinations
California	kindergarten-primary, upper elementary, home economics, music
Connecticut	industrial arts
Delaware	qualified elementary, special subjects
Indiana	home economics, agriculture, music, art, four-year elementary
Kentucky	home economics, industrial arts, sociology, economics, mathematics, English

Louisiana	home economics, manual arts, agriculture
Maine	slight shortage in elementary
Michigan	elementary rural
Minnesota	rural at low salaries
Missouri	music, mathematics, home economics, agriculture
Mississippi	certain high-school fields
Nebraska	almost every field, especially four-year elementary
New Mexico	necessary to import teachers
North Dakota	300 teachers
Ohio	agricultural education, commercial, and opportunities good in elementary, home economics, physical education, nursing education, practical arts, and industrial arts
Pennsylvania	four-year elementary, commercial, home economics, health and physical education, agriculture
South Dakota	"qualified" at low salaries
Washington	many out-of-state teachers employed
West Virginia	art, general science, industrial arts, commercial, music, physical education, agriculture, mathematics

An oversupply was noted in specific fields within the individual states as follows:

California	social studies, English
Ohio	science, English and history, mathematics, foreign language, geography
South Carolina	general, but few of the best qualified
Tennessee	elementary
Wisconsin	3,000 to 5,000 qualified teachers
West Virginia	French, Latin, physical science, biology, English, social studies

In the selection of teachers, certain community attitudes often influence the choice made. Hanson and Umstattd studied the community mores influencing teacher employment, with specific reference to church affiliation, marital status, age preferences, and social and personal practices. They found that 72 communities in Minnesota reject teachers who have no church affiliation, whereas in 138 other communities this is not a significant factor. Certain faiths are discriminated against. Married women are barred in 80 per cent of the communi-

ties, although one-half of the superintendents prefer married men. The desirable ages are from twenty to thirty years. Two-thirds of the communities reported that the use of tobacco by men would not jeopardize their employment, but that women who smoked would be rejected. Women are rejected more frequently than men for failure to attend church or for activities in politics although these activities are deemed important in half the communities studied. Card playing was listed as a handicap in only four communities. Six communities would refuse those who dance (10).

Briggs showed that 76.2 per cent of the teachers must participate in extra-curricular activities (4). Emmert noted certain preferences for men teachers in some subjects and for women in others (8).

Sangren discussed the efforts made in Michigan to reduce the oversupply and to improve the qualification of teachers (18). Owen condemned the laxity of our present teacher-training program. He recommended an annual teacher quota in Pennsylvania, determined and prescribed by state authorities, and he would have more careful selection of students in training (16). Marple was of the opinion that other inducements than chance to serve must be offered if capable persons are to be attracted into teaching. Some of these factors are salary considerations and opportunities for retirement (12). Willey would raise standards and limit the output (24).

Bibliography

1. ANDERSON, EARL W. "Teaching Opportunities in 1936," EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN, XVI (January 13, 1937), pp. 7–10.
2. ASHBY, BERTHA M. *Report of the Teacher Placement Division.* Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Bureau of Appointments and Occupational Information, University of Michigan, 1937. (Official Publication, Vol. 38, No. 53)
3. BLEDSOE, LUTHER E. "The Supply and Demand for Public School Teachers in West Virginia." Charleston, West Virginia: National Youth Administration, 1937. 85 pp. (Research Bulletin No. 2)
4. BRIGGS, E. S. "Demand for Teachers Prepared to Guide and Direct Extra-Curricular Activities," *School and Society*, XVI (May 15, 1937), pp. 693–96.
5. ELDER, HARRY E., AND CARTER, DONITA. "Report on the Graduates of Indiana State Teachers College in 1936." Terre Haute, Indiana: Indiana State Teachers College. (Mimeographed)
6. ELIASSEN, R. H., AND ANDERSON, EARL W. "Investigations of Teacher

Supply and Demand Reported in 1936," EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN, XVI (March 17, 1937), pp. 72–74.

7. ELIASSEN, R. H., AND ANDERSON, EARL W. "Teacher Supply and Demand," *Review of Educational Research*, VII (June, 1937), pp. 239–41, 316–18.
8. EMMERT, ERNEST G. "Teacher Demand and Teacher Turnover in the High Schools of Ohio," EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN, XVI (April, 1937), pp. 92–96.
9. GUIWITS, EMILY. "Why Be a School Teacher?" *American School Board Journal*, Vol. XCIV, No. 3 (March, 1937), pp. 29–30.
10. HANSON, E. M., AND UMSTATTD, J. G. "Mores and Teacher Selection in Minnesota," *School and Society*, XLV (April 24, 1937), pp. 579–82.
11. "Increase in Employment of Normal School Graduates in New York State," *School and Society*, XLV (March 20, 1937), pp. 394–95.
12. MARPLE, C. H. "Teachers in Demand," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. XCV, No. 4 (October, 1937), pp. 19–21.
13. MALMBERG, C. F. "Teaching Positions in Illinois High Schools," *Rôle of Research in Educational Progress*. Washington, D. C.: American Educational Research Association, 1937. p. 40.
14. MILLER, CLYDE R. "Bureau of Educational Service: Report of the Director," *Teachers College Bulletin*, Twenty-ninth Series, November, 1937, pp. 101–107.
15. MORITZ, R. D. *Annual Report of the Department of Educational Service*. (Bulletin of the University of Nebraska, Series XIII No. 2, October 29, 1937)
16. OWEN, R. A. D. "State Control Over Teacher Supply," *National Elementary Principals*, XVII (October, 1937), pp. 48–52.
17. PIERCE, A. E. "Selection of Teachers," *Harvard Education Review*, VII (March, 1937), pp. 162–63.
18. SANGREN, P. V. "Central Regulation of the Sources of Various Types of Teachers," *Rôle of Research in Educational Progress*. Washington, D. C.: American Education Research Association, 1937. pp. 164–68.
19. SCHMIDT, C. C. "Report of the Teacher Placement Bureau," *School of Education Record of the University of North Dakota*, XXII (April, 1937), pp. 204–209.
20. SNARR, O. W., AND MALCHOW, ANITA. "Report of the Activities of the Placement Committee," *School Progress*, XVIII (January, 1937), pp. 9–20.
21. "Survey Discloses Teacher Shortage," *Education News*, I (October 4, 1937), pp. 1–5.
22. TARBELL, E. A. "Employment Opportunities," *New York State Education*, XXIV (February, 1937), pp. 354–55.
23. UMSTATTD, J. G. "The Third Annual Survey of Teacher-Education Graduates," "Bulletin of the National Institutional Teacher Placement Association," III (May 15, 1937), pp. 15–21. (Mimeographed)
24. WILLEY, WARNER MOORE. "The Supply and Demand of Secondary School Teachers in Kentucky," *Bulletin of the Commonwealth of Kentucky*, V (November, 1937), 73 pp.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

Selecting Teachers

DURING the next few months several thousand new teachers will be chosen for service in the public schools of Ohio. In some instances these will be local residents who are so well known to the employing officials that the likelihood of their success as prospective teachers can be predicted with reasonable accuracy. Often, however, these new people whose employment as teachers in the community may continue for a year or for almost a lifetime will be engaged by school officials who have insufficient evidence upon which to judge adequately regarding their qualifications for the positions to be filled.

The efficiency of the school is determined very largely by the effectiveness of the teachers. Hence, their selection is the most important work of the school officials. If excellent teachers are employed, they tone up the school in numerous ways. Pupils are enthusiastically co-operative toward them, responding eagerly to their leadership. These teachers assume responsibilities readily and perform them with thoroughness, enjoyment, and good judgment. They utilize suggestions quickly and cleverly, but they can teach satisfactorily if little or no help is available. Students and citizens are outspoken in praise for the new teachers and for everybody who had any part in their selection.

If poor teachers are employed, they quickly weaken the school. Their pupils are disinterested, not co-operative, antagonistic, or generally disturbing. These teachers voluntarily assume no responsibilities. Duties assigned them are handled perfunctorily, carelessly, or not at all. Some of these teachers do not recognize their shortcomings; others, aware of their weaknesses, cannot overcome them. The administrator spends tremendous amounts of time in trying to solve the situation, which may include many problems of unsatisfactory school conditions. Parents complain of the classroom inefficiency of these teachers and of their lack of wisdom in community activities. Early in the school year the question arises as to whether or not these poor teachers should be dismissed at once. If they

are to finish the school year, then comes the apprehensiveness in the decision "to try them another year" or the unpleasantness involved in refusal to re-employ them. These trying experiences lead the administrator to see the need for more care in the selection of teachers. He resolves that, if at all possible, no new teacher will be employed under his supervision until it is reasonably certain that no better candidate can be found for the money and the conditions of employment which his community can offer.

The administrator who seeks wise selection of teachers in the schools under his administration will see that certain procedures are followed in their employment. There will be a careful search through all sources of teacher supply. Detailed verified information as to training and experience will be provided. There will be statements of judgment regarding the qualifications of the prospective teacher. These judgments will be scrutinized as to the bases upon which they are founded and the thoughtfulness with which they are presented. Teachers will be observed in their classrooms whenever possible. Personal interviews will be held with those who know of the candidate's abilities and success. If possible, the teacher or teachers under serious consideration will be interviewed in the community in which the teaching is to be done. In fact, every effort will be made to bring all parties into a close understanding as to just what each may contribute and expect to receive as a result of the employment. In view of the difficulties in determining and predicting teaching ability, in view of the existing wide differences in teaching ability, and in view of the great influence of the teacher upon his pupils, great effort and perseverance in selecting teachers are not only desirable but very essential. The thorough administrator will not let other duties, more demanding but less important, seriously limit the emphasis which he gives to teacher selection.

EARL W. ANDERSON

READINGS

Books to Read

MOTT, GEORGE FOX, *et al. An Outline Survey of Journalism.* New York: Barnes and Noble, 1937. xxiii+376 pp.

Here is a book which is much more of a survey than an outline. It emphasizes that journalism is "made up of many closely interrelated phases" rather than "a series of largely independent aspects loosely associated under a common name." Being limited in scope, it does not pretend to exhaust the subject but tries to give an overview of the essentials. In this purpose it succeeds admirably, on the whole. Its treatment in topical outline style facilitates its reading. Three bibliographies, an appended model style guide, and many footnotes add to its general usefulness. After three brief introductory chapters, most of the remaining forty chapters deal with editing and writing phases of journalism. Magazine writing gets off with only one chapter, advertising with two, and the business, circulation, and mechanical departments are dismissed with one each. This is somewhat out of balance. The single chart suggesting the organization of a newspaper leaves something to be desired. The very brevity of the work compels the omission of important details such as the extent to which the newspaper is affected by a special public interest.

Despite these and other minor shortcomings, it is a valuable addition to the growing literature of journalism. It should be especially useful as an aid in vocational guidance.

JAMES E. POLLARD

FORLANO, GEORGE. *School Learning with Various Methods of Practice and Rewards.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. 114 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 688)

This monograph reports an attempt to verify certain experimental findings of the laboratory under reasonably normal elementary-school situations. Forlano addresses himself to three related problems: How much time should be spent in reading-study as compared with recitation? Does actual monetary reward, or the promise of monetary reward, affect the rate and amount of learning? Is immediate knowledge of result more beneficial to learning than a delayed knowledge of result? The learning problems, though actual school problems, were of the more mechanical or rote sort, such as learning a hard English vocabulary, learning to spell certain words, or doing arithmetic problems.

In one set of experiments, the total learning time was divided for the pupils by the experimenter into reading time and recitation time, ranging from 100 per cent reading to 20 per cent. In another set, 100 per cent reading time was contrasted with self-recitation whenever the pupil felt the need of it, but always at least once, when the learning period was half over. There was careful control of practice effects. In all cases, "the recitation methods of learning, no matter how small the proportion of recitation involved, were superior to the reading (alone) method of learning" (page 53).

It is not possible, on the basis of Forlano's results, to say just how much recitation is advisable. There comes a time of decreasing return, and where that point is reached depends on the materials used, the conditions, and the learner. But apparently it always pays to recite. In the reviewer's opinion, we may take it as definitely established that we should encourage a child in every case to check on his learning at least once, in preference to spending all his time in reading-study. This is old stuff, but not demonstrated for the elementary-school situation. Old stuff, but still greatly honored in the breach.

Progressive educators may be inclined to point out that such recitation is actually involved in activity programs. A priori, this would seem to be true. None the less, since learning is intimately dependent upon the total pattern of activities going on, we should perhaps be somewhat guarded in our generalizations. Having found that recitation in the rather orthodox school sense does facilitate learning more than reading-study alone, the next step is to make a check upon the kind of recitation which is involved in an activity program. One is of course well aware that the learning of skill or information is not the only purpose of the activity program, but it is one purpose, and, as such, should be put to the test. Whatever may be said as to the inadvisability of analysis, when such analysis destroys the whole with which we began, certainly there is no objection to that form which considers one at a time, the benefits or alleged benefits of a proposed program. We ought, then, to know what is the effect upon the learning of information or skill of the kind of recitation that is involved in the activity program. If it is proved that this form of recitation is less effective than the orthodox type, the case for the activity program will not be lost, but of course it will be weakened.

Forlano's investigations of the effect of rewards are less well conceived and less decisive. In the first place, monetary reward is not a usual schoolroom procedure. This he admits, although he argues that it is analogous to schoolroom procedure. None the less, he is arguing that we need to make a study of actual schoolroom conditions, and, in so far as monetary rewards are unusual, he has departed from his major intention. The problem is likewise more complicated. It is almost impossible to get a study of any single motivation operating by itself or even as a major determinant. Always, we have a large number of motivations operating concurrently. The problem should thus be stated, Will monetary reward, or the promise of monetary reward, increase the usual motivations or incentives which are operative in school work? Forlano's answer seems to be, Yes. Not, to be sure, by any large amount, but by a material and possibly worth-while amount. The promise of such reward is about as effective as the actual reward itself. Furthermore, large increases in the amount of the reward are necessary to effectuate small increases in the learning. This leads one to question whether it was the monetary reward as such or the novelty which was effective here. It is altogether likely that monetary rewards would lose much of their effectiveness if frequently employed.

Somewhat surprisingly, the author finds some reasons to hold that delayed knowledge of progress is more effective than immediate, though the data are not thoroughly reliable. Neither the author nor the reviewer, however, regards the conclusion as valid. Forlano does not give us a "pure" comparison of immediate and delayed knowledge. Interpretation is dangerous but

the reviewer will hazard the following: "Immediate" knowledge of progress was flung at the learner item for item as he reacted, whether he felt any need for it or not, whereas the "delayed" knowledge came when the learner felt that his learning had proceeded far enough so that he wanted to test himself. My "hunch" is that we have here one more instance of the relation of learning to a felt need. At any rate, the method used in self-instructional devices seems sound: let the child study till he feels the need to test his progress and let him then be shown as clearly as possible just where he is right or wrong. The confirmation of the soundness of established procedures is not exciting but it is very useful.

H. B. ENGLISH

HILL, RUTH A., AND DE BONDELI, ELSA, compilers. *Children's Books from Foreign Languages: English Translations from Published and Unpublished Sources.* New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1937. 148 pp.

This book should prove a gold mine of information to children's librarians, students of children's literature, and publishers of children's literature. It includes some 950 translations or adaptations from 39 foreign countries. Part of this information has been available in card form at the New York Public Library, the American Library Association headquarters in Chicago, and at the Bureau of International Education at Geneva for several years and has already proved its usefulness.

The arrangement is by country of origin, countries ranging alphabetically from Africa to Yugoslavia. Full information for one or two English translations, and, where possible, the entry for the first vernacular edition are given. Where more than two editions or translations are available, that fact is indicated. An index, well sprinkled with cross-references, is included.

Great care seems to have been taken to make this bibliography as complete as practicable. The same care has been extended to bibliographical details, with the result that one anticipates great usefulness for the list. To the compilers are due great thanks for a needed job well done.

RUTH E. SEEGER

GOLDMARK, JOSEPHINE, AND HOLLMAN, A. H. Translated by Alice G. Brandeis. *Democracy in Denmark.* Washington, D. C.: National Home Library Foundation, 1936. x+158 pp.

This simple textbook for adult readers is divided into two parts: "Democracy in Action" by Miss Goldmark, and "The Folk High School" by Mr. Hollman. It is of particular importance because it is one of a series of 29 books which have been written to sell at low prices for popular consumption. It represents a noteworthy effort to make good materials available for the wide consumption which comes through a low price.

W. W. CHARTERS

In Paper Covers

CRU, ALBERT L. "La France." (Preliminary Edition) New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. 143 pp.

This work in its present form offers a serviceable outline for a course in French civilization. It will undoubtedly prove useful, but not as a quick reference book for teachers as indicated in the Introduction by Mr. Albert

Gaudin, of the College of the City of New York. The work leaves no doubt concerning the author's broad knowledge of French civilization; but a specialist in any one of the fields he touches might not agree that he is always able to "*distinguer l'inutile du nécessaire*" or to pick the most important book of an author. One example will serve to illustrate the point. Few students of eighteenth-century literature would fail to mention Voltaire's *Candide*. However, these are matters of opinion.

Without an alphabetical index, which would necessarily be long, the form of presentation of the material defeats the purpose of the book. The very knowledge sought by the "*pauvre professeur*" is necessary before he can locate a name tucked away in its proper century, classification, and chronological order. The average teacher does not know whether Frédégonde was a naval battle or a musical composition.

It is always to be regretted that in such a comprehensive enumeration of well-chosen facts the "language of artistic expression" must be reduced to a minimum. It is precisely this clothing for the "skeleton of facts" that the average teacher lacks. Not to such a teacher, but rather to the well-informed professor with plenty of reference books at his elbow, will this book offer invaluable suggestions for civilization courses.

R. E. MONROE

Stone Setting. Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1935. ix+226 pp. (Vocational Education Bulletin No. 106)

This bulletin is another in a valuable series of government trade and industrial publications for educational purposes in public and private schools. It follows substantially a pattern established by Charles R. Allen in pioneer work of this sort with the Emergency Fleet Corporation, and with at most a hint—perhaps inadvertent—of the influence of Robert W. Selvidge, who developed concurrently a pattern of trade analysis for the army. The bulletin is notable for its wealth of illustrative material, and for its direct presentation of manipulative and technical instruction. Its excellence in these ways, however, can scarcely compensate for its narrowness in scope. Within the past two decades, general education has materially broadened and enriched its vision concerning the needs for the education of "the whole man"; and it appears regrettable that vocational education still contents itself with manipulative and technical excellence—an area in which personal-social development is so vitally necessary to genuine success. Much the same criticism applies to method: the bulletin proposes a formal presentation of most approved skills and technical understandings, with no suggestion of instructor or learner initiative. Undoubtedly the bulletin is well done within self-imposed limitations—limitations, however, all too narrow to permit to vocational education its greatest contribution to socioeconomic welfare.

WILLIAM H. STONE

PULLIAS, EARL V. *Variability in Results from New-Type Achievements Tests.* Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1937. 100 pp. (Duke University Research Studies in Education, No. 2)

This investigation dealt with objective achievement tests built independently yet aimed to measure the same abilities and the same content and administered under comparable conditions to the same pupils. In terms of

teachers' marks, the disparity between paired objective tests was found to average one letter mark on a five-point scale, *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, and *E*. Quite similar results were obtained when three standardized objective tests in each of seven subjects were administered to 460 sixth-grade pupils.

Heretofore, the most serious objections raised against standardized tests have been limited to questioning whether the tests measured the desired objectives of the course. The investigation here reported would indicate far from perfect satisfaction, even though it can be assumed that the test actually evaluates students' attainment of the purposes for which course experiences are provided.

JAMES E. WERT

CONARD, EDITH UNDERWOOD. *Trends in Manuscript Writing*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. ix+29 pp.

CONARD, EDITH UNDERWOOD. *Data on Manuscript Writing*. New York: A. N. Palmer Company, 1937. 23 pp.

The first pamphlet gives references to history, psychology, methods of teaching, standards, remedial teaching, related studies, decoration and illumination, bibliographies, and places to secure materials for manuscript writing. It was compiled, according to Patty S. Hill, for "teachers who are interested in the very convincing results attained in her [Miss Conard's] studies of the place and function of cursive writing, manuscript writing, and typewriting in progressive education."

This brief presentation might be used to supplement and aid in the study of pamphlets and materials already prepared by Miss Conard—*Show Me How to Write*, Books 1 and 2, and the teacher's guide, published by A. N. Palmer Company, New York. It could very well serve as an outline for further study and investigation to give a proper background for manuscript writing.

At the 1936 National Conference on Research in Elementary School English, the off-the-program debate on the relative merits of the cursive versus the manuscript form of writing seemed to indicate that a teacher should study both methods and decide which she prefers to use. The discussion seemed to indicate that the cursive, as well as the manuscript, form of writing has its merits.

The bibliography contained in Miss Conard's second pamphlet on manuscript writing will be invaluable to teachers and students of manuscript writing. Its presentation of books, materials, magazine articles, and studies related to manuscript writing, as well as a suggestive list of places to secure materials in the United States, is of a very helpful type. The pamphlet contains a condensed illustrated history of types of records and alphabets. It also gives a short review of techniques, standards, approaches, and aims of manuscript writing which Miss Conard has so ably presented in earlier pamphlets.

ELLEN T. WARNER

HENMON, V.A.C., AND NELSON, M.J. *Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability* (High School Examination). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1936.

"These tests are designed to measure the mental ability of students in junior and senior high schools." Three forms identical in difficulty are available. Each consists of 90 multiple-choice items arranged in order of increasing

difficulty; the time allowed is thirty minutes. Scoring is simplified by the use of the Clapp-Young carbon self-marking device.

Standardization on five thousand pupils and checking on over two hundred thousand gives a basis for superior statistical treatment and data on which interpretation of test scores may be based. On the basis of one hundred tests in each group chosen at random, standard deviations for age-groups approximate 15, and for grades, 13; coefficients of reliability for age-groups, .915, and for grades, .892. Percentile distributions for both age- and grade-groups are given. The authors provide tables for translation of raw scores into mental-age scores and *I.Q.*'s, but commendably urge those who use these tests to substitute centile ranks for these measures, against which so many objections may be raised, particularly at the high-school level.

Tests similar in form for grades three to eight and for colleges, by the same authors, are announced, but have not been received for review.

FRANCIS N. MAXFIELD

BOARD OF EDUCATION, CITY OF DETROIT. *"Of the People": The Superintendent's Annual Report for the 93rd Year of the Detroit Public Schools, Part I.* Detroit, Michigan: Board of Education, 1937. 94 pp.

The annual school report of Superintendent Frank Cody of Detroit is being issued this year in two parts. Part I, which is here under review, is presented in pictorial form. Part II, which is not yet off the press, will be devoted to school statistics. Part I contains dozens of excellent pictures showing day-by-day activities of the Detroit pupils from the kindergarten through the graduate school of the University, each with a brief description.

Here is a type of report which we believe will be perused by the general public as well as educators. It will be perused because it is humanized. Since this type of report was introduced by the New York schools two years ago it has been already copied by several large cities. The Detroit report is one of the very best pictorial reports which we have seen.

WARD G. REEDER

BUROS, OSCAR K. *Education, Psychological and Personality Tests of 1936.* New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University, 1937. 141 pp. (Studies in Education No. 11)

Teachers frequently want to know of the new tests published and the available tests on the market. The yearly volume of *Educational, Psychological and Personality Tests*, prepared by Oscar K. Buros and published by Rutgers University, is an answer to this need. The service was begun in 1935 with the publication of *Educational, Psychological and Personality Tests of 1933 and 1934*. The third and present volume of the series contains a listing of the published tests of 1936. A new feature has been added to the present volume. This section consists of a list of books, monographs, and pamphlets on measurement and closely related topics published in 1933 through 1936. When available, excerpts from reviews of the books are given. This is a significant aspect, because it makes available in one source the reactions of more than one person to the publications. The writer would like to see a similar treatment of new tests in future issues of this series to supplement the information given for each test. The complete listing of all new tests published will depend somewhat upon the co-operation of test publishers.

FRED P. FRUTCHEY